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The War

OUR FOREIGN POLICY IN THE FRAMEWORK OF OUR NATIONAL INTERESTS

Address by the Secretary of State¹

[Released to the press September 12]

I

In July of last year, in an address over these networks, I outlined, as definitely as was possible at that time, the chief problems and conditions confronting us in the field of foreign relations and sought to indicate some of the policies necessary for meeting these problems. I pointed out that in the present conflict each of the United Nations is fighting for the preservation of its freedom, its homes, its very existence; and that only through united effort to defeat our enemies can freedom or the opportunity for freedom be preserved—for all countries and all peoples. I spoke of the need to chart for the future a course based on enduring spiritual values which would bring our nation and all nations greater hope for enduring peace and greater measure of human welfare. To this end, I urged intensive study, hard thinking, broad vision, and leadership by all those, within each nation, who provide spiritual, moral, and intellectual guidance.

At that time, the military picture was still dark. The United Nations were still fighting a desperate war of defense against better prepared foes. We had suffered a succession of grim defeats.

Since then, the military picture has greatly changed.

We are now winning heartening victories—in the air, at sea, and on land. Our counterblows are steadily increasing in power and effectiveness. They are stepping-stones to our final triumph over the forces of conquest and savagery.

Attainment of complete victory, although now certain, is still a formidable task. Our lesser enemies are fast losing heart and strength. Italy has already surrendered. But our principal enemies, Germany and Japan, though shaken, still possess great resources and enormous strength. They still control vast portions of Europe and of Asia. To defeat them completely, the United Nations need to make, on the battlefront and at home, efforts even greater than those thus far made.

In making these more intensified efforts, it is more important than ever for all concerned to have a clear understanding of what is at stake, now and in the future.

During recent months, public discussion and debate on a high plane have revealed the profound concern of our people with the issues of the country's foreign relations. These issues need to be seen in their full perspective. Unless our people so see them, and unless our people are willing to translate their understanding of them into action, the well-being of the nation—and even its very life—may be gravely menaced.

The foreign policy of any country must be expressive of that country's fundamental national interests. No country can keep faith with itself unless that is so.

In determining our foreign policy we must first see clearly what our true national interests are. We must also bear in mind that other

¹ Broadcast over the network of the National Broadcasting Company, Sept. 12, 1943.

countries with which we deal in the conduct of foreign relations have their national interests, which, of course, determine their policies.

Obviously there are, even between friendly nations, differences as regards their respective aims and purposes and as regards the means of attaining them. But there are also immense areas of common interest. By cooperating within those areas, the nations not only can advance more effectively the aims and purposes which they have in common, but can also find increased opportunity to reconcile, by peaceful means and to mutual advantage, such differences as may exist among them.

II

At the present time, the paramount aim of our foreign policy, and the paramount aim of the foreign policy of each of the other United Nations, is to defeat our enemies as quickly as possible. Here we have a vast area of common interest and a broad basis of cooperative action in the service of that interest.

Every weapon of our military and economic activity and every instrumentality of our diplomacy have been and are directed toward the strengthening of the combined war effort. All these necessarily go together.

The land, air, and sea forces of the United States are fighting with surpassing skill and heroism in the Mediterranean, over the Nazi-held fortress of Europe, in the far reaches of the Pacific and of Asia. In each of the theaters of war they are operating shoulder to shoulder in a spirit of superb comradeship with the gallant forces of one or more of our Allies.

The resolute will and devoted effort of our people have brought about the greatest miracle of production and delivery in all history. Our war supplies are flowing outward in a constant and ever-increasing stream, not alone to those areas in which our own forces are engaged, but to every point on the globe at which the armed forces of the United Nations are fighting.

We are in continuous consultation with our Allies on various phases of military, economic,

and political activity—as required by the exigencies of a constantly changing situation.

Our cooperation with our Allies has long since reached the state where contingents of the forces of various Allies are serving side by side under unified command. We have developed this type of cooperation with invincible Britain; with intrepid and resolute Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa; with valiant and determined China; and with the forces of other Allies. It is being rapidly extended as the military operations progress.

To the Soviet Union, whose heroic armies and civilian population have earned everlasting renown through their magnificent feats of courage and sacrifice, we have been glad to render all possible aid. It is our desire and our settled policy that collaboration and cooperation between our two countries shall steadily increase during and following the war.

With the re-emerging military power of France we have been and are developing a heartening degree of coordinated effort. We look forward to the day when reborn France will again take her rightful place in the family of free nations.

With governments which the Axis powers have driven from their invaded and brutally oppressed but unconquerable countries we have the most friendly relations. These relations reflect our profound and active sympathy for the suffering of their peoples and our determination that the victory of the United Nations shall restore their nations to freedom.

With all but one of the nations of the Western Hemisphere we have today the closest ties of solidarity and association—the fruit of 10 years of unrelenting labor on the part of all of these nations to build in this hemisphere a fraternity of Good Neighbors. Each of our American associates is making a magnificent contribution to the war effort. Here we have, in peace and in war, a highly successful example of cooperation between sovereign nations.

The victories of the United Nations have been the direct result, not of separate and uncoordinated military, economic, and diplomatic

action, but of close coordination of all three types of action, both within each of the nations and among all of them. It is well to recall some outstanding examples.

Our protracted diplomatic effort to achieve a fair and peaceful solution of difficulties in the Far East afforded our military authorities and those of other countries now in the ranks of the United Nations many months of precious time for strengthening defenses against the combined Axis threats in the Atlantic and in the Pacific, in case Japan should reject a peaceful settlement as she eventually did.

The drawing-together of the American republics to assure their common defense made it possible to establish a line of communications through the Caribbean, Brazil, and the South Atlantic. That line proved to be of invaluable importance alike in transporting equipment to the British forces at El Alamein; in supplying our own expedition to North Africa; and, at a desperate hour, in putting our warplanes into the air over the Pacific islands and in China.

Diplomatic foresight and patient and vigorous activity by the agencies of our foreign policy played an indispensable part in preparing the way by which the huge strategic North African area was brought without heavy losses into the sphere of the United Nations and the French fleet was kept out of German hands. Had Vichy felt it feasible to ignore our diplomatic pressure directed toward preventing the surrender of the North and West African areas to the Nazis and the delivery of the French fleet to Hitler as Laval had planned, or had Spain entered the war on the side of the Axis as Hitler had hoped, control of the Mediterranean would have early fallen into the hands of our enemies. Instead, the Allied forces converged, with a skill and precision unequaled in military annals, upon this gateway through which we are now invading the European Continent.

The Mediterranean operations weakened the German air force available on the Soviet front just as the Russian resistance, by holding the German armies on the eastern battle line, prevented Hitler from parrying our thrust toward

his southern flank. Meanwhile, our constant military pressure against Japan had its inevitable effect in deterring Japan from aggression against the Soviet Union.

Our diplomatic agreements with fearless Danish officials on free soil and with the Government of Iceland made it possible to guard the great North Atlantic passage as a precious route for our supplies and troops and as defense against attack from the north.

The perseverance of China, the first victim of the movement of aggression, in resistance to Japan has been aided in no small measure by the faith of her leaders in us, based on their knowledge of our history and policy and on their observation, as time went on, of our efforts to achieve a fair and peaceful settlement in the Far East, our economic support, and more recently, our military assistance. China's resistance has held enmeshed on her front substantial Japanese forces which might otherwise have been loosed against us and other of the United Nations in the Pacific; and China is playing an important part in the United Nations' program for the winning of the war and achievement of a stable peace.

The agencies of our foreign policy are at all times at work as instruments of national defense. Since the attack upon us, they have been intensively at work in assisting our armed forces to achieve the victories which are now fast increasing in numbers and significance.

III

Beyond final victory, our fundamental national interests are—as they always have been—the assuring of our national security and the fostering of the economic and social well-being of our people. To maintain these interests, our foreign policy must necessarily deal with current conditions and must plan for the future in the light of the concepts and beliefs which we, as a nation, accept for ourselves as the guiding lines of our international behavior.

Throughout our national history, our basic policy in dealing with foreign nations has rested

upon certain beliefs which are widely and deeply rooted in the minds of our people. Outstanding among these are:

1. All peoples who, with "a decent respect to the opinions of mankind", have qualified themselves to assume and to discharge the responsibilities of liberty are entitled to its enjoyment.

2. Each sovereign nation, large or small, is in law and under law the equal of every other nation.

3. All nations, large and small, which respect the rights of others, are entitled to freedom from outside interference in their internal affairs.

4. Willingness to settle international disputes by peaceful means, acceptance of international law, and observance of its principles are the bases of order among nations and of mankind's continuing search for enduring peace.

5. Nondiscrimination in economic opportunity and treatment is essential to the maintenance and promotion of sound international relations.

6. Cooperation between nations in the spirit of good neighbors, founded on the principles of liberty, equality, justice, morality, and law, is the most effective method of safeguarding and promoting the political, the economic, the social, and the cultural well-being of our nation and of all nations.

These beliefs are among the most important tenets of our national faith. They are capable of universal application as rules of national and international conduct. In their application by other nations and in willingness and preparedness on the part of all peacefully inclined nations to join together to make them effective lies the greatest hope of security, happiness, and progress for this country and for all countries.

Vigorous participation in efforts to establish a system of international relations based on these rules of conduct, and thus to create conditions in which war may be effectively banished, is and must be a fundamental feature

of our foreign policy—second only to our present over-riding preoccupation with the winning of complete military victory. Here, too, our nation and other peacefully inclined nations have a vast and crucial area of common interest.

In the Atlantic Charter and in the Declaration by United Nations, the nations now associated in this war for self-preservation have clearly expressed their recognition of the existence of this area of common interest. Our task and that of our associates is to utilize this common interest to create an effective system of international cooperation for the maintenance of peace.

As I read our history and the temper of our people today, our nation intends to do its part, jointly with the other peace-seeking nations, in helping the war-torn world to heal its wounds. I am sure also that our nation and each of the nations associated today in the greatest cooperative enterprise in history—the winning of this war—intends to do its part, after the victory of the United Nations, in meeting the immense needs of the post-war period. Those needs will embrace the task of taking practical steps to create conditions in which there will be security for every nation; in which each nation will have enhanced opportunities to develop and progress in ways of its own choosing; in which there will be, for each nation, improved facilities to attain, by its own effort and in cooperation with others, an increasing measure of political stability and of economic, social, and cultural welfare.

If our nation and like-minded nations fail in this task, the way will be open for a new rise of international anarchy, for new and even more destructive wars, for an unprecedented material and spiritual impoverishment of mankind. Many times in the course of history nations have drifted into catastrophe through failure, until too late, to recognize the dangers which confronted them and to take the measures necessary to ward off those dangers. Post-war cooperation to maintain the peace is for

each peace-seeking nation scarcely less essential for its self-preservation than is the present cooperative effort to win the war.

IV

If there is anything on which all right-thinking people are agreed, it is the proposition that the monstrous specter of a world war shall not again show its head. The people of this and other lands voice this demand insistently. There is danger in complacency and wishful thinking. The nations that stand for peace and security must now make up their minds and act together—or there will be neither peace nor security.

It is abundantly clear that a system of organized international cooperation for the maintenance of peace must be based upon the willingness of the cooperating nations to use force, if necessary, to keep the peace. There must be certainty that adequate and appropriate means are available and will be used for this purpose. Readiness to use force, if necessary, for the maintenance of peace is indispensable if effective substitutes for war are to be found.

Differences between nations which lead toward armed conflict may be those of a non-legal character, commonly referred to as political, and those capable of being resolved by applying rules of law, commonly referred to as justiciable. Another cause of armed conflict is aggression by nations whose only motive is conquest and self-aggrandizement. We must, therefore, provide for differences of a political character, for those of a legal nature, and for cases where there is plain and unadulterated aggression.

Political differences which present a threat to the peace of the world should be submitted to agencies which would use the remedies of discussion, negotiation, conciliation, and good offices.

Disputes of a legal character which present a threat to the peace of the world should be adjudicated by an international court of justice whose decisions would be based upon application of principles of law.

But to assure peace there must also be means for restraining aggressors and nations that seek to resort to force for the accomplishment of purposes of their own. The peacefully inclined nations must, in the interest of general peace and security, be willing to accept responsibility for this task in accordance with their respective capacities.

The success of an organized system of international cooperation with the maintenance of peace as its paramount objective depends, to an important degree, upon what happens within as well as among nations. We know that political controversies and economic strife among nations are fruitful causes of hostility and conflict. But we also know that economic stagnation and distress, cultural backwardness, and social unrest within nations, wherever they exist, may undermine all efforts for stable peace.

The primary responsibility for dealing with these conditions rests on each and every nation concerned. But each nation will be greatly helped in this task by the establishment of sound trade and other economic relations with other nations, based on a comprehensive system of mutually beneficial international cooperation, not alone in these respects, but also in furthering educational advancement and in promoting observance of basic human rights.

There rests upon the independent nations a responsibility in relation to dependent peoples who aspire to liberty. It should be the duty of nations having political ties with such peoples, of mandatories, of trustees, or of other agencies, as the case may be, to help the aspiring peoples to develop materially and educationally, to prepare themselves for the duties and responsibilities of self-government, and to attain liberty. An excellent example of what can be achieved is afforded in the record of our relationship with the Philippines.

Organized international cooperation can be successful only to the extent to which the nations of the world are willing to accept certain fundamental propositions.

First, each nation should maintain a stable government. Each nation should be free to

decide for itself the forms and details of its governmental organization—so long as it conducts its affairs in such a way as not to menace the peace and security of other nations.

Second, each nation should conduct its economic affairs in such a way as to promote the most effective utilization of its human and material resources and the greatest practicable measure of economic welfare and social security for all of its citizens. Each nation should be free to decide for itself the forms of its internal economic and social organization—but it should conduct its affairs in such a way as to respect the rights of others and to play its necessary part in a system of sound international economic relations.

Third, each nation should be willing to submit differences arising between it and other nations to processes of peaceful settlement and should be prepared to carry out other obligations that may devolve upon it in an effective system of organized peace.

All of this calls for the creation of a system of international relations based on rules of morality, law, and justice as distinguished from the anarchy of unbridled and discordant nationalisms, economic and political. The outstanding characteristic of such a system is liberty under law for nations as well as individuals. Its method is peaceful cooperation.

The form and functions of the international agencies of the future, the extent to which the existing court of international justice may or may not need to be remodeled, the scope and character of the means for making international action effective in the maintenance of peace, the nature of international economic institutions and arrangements that may be desirable and feasible—all these are among the problems which are receiving attention and which will need to be determined by agreement among governments, subject, of course, to approval by their respective peoples. They are being studied intensively by this Government and by other governments. They are gradually being made subjects of consultation between and among governments. They are being

studied and discussed by the people of this country and the peoples of other countries. In the final analysis, it is the will of the peoples of the world that decides the all-embracing issues of peace and of human welfare.

V

The outbreak of war made it clear that problems of crucial importance in the field of foreign relations would confront this country as well as other countries upon the termination of hostilities. It became the obvious duty of the Department of State to give special attention to the study of conditions and developments relating to such problems. As the war spread over the earth, the scope of these studies was extended and work upon them was steadily increased, so far as was compatible with the fullest possible prosecution of the war.

By direction of the President and with his active interest in the work, the Department of State undertook, through special groups organized for the purpose, to examine the various matters affecting the conclusion of the war, the making of the peace, and preparation for dealing with post-war problems. In doing this work, we have had collaboration of representatives of other interested agencies of the Government and of many national leaders, without regard to their political affiliation, and the assistance of a specially constituted and highly qualified research staff. We have been aided greatly by public discussion of the problems involved on the part of responsible private individuals and groups and by the numerous suggestions and expressions of opinion which we have received from all parts of the country. In proceeding with this work we envisage the fullest cooperation between the executive and the legislative branches of the Government.

We have now reached a stage at which it becomes possible to discuss in greater detail some of the basic problems outlined in this address and in my previous statements. I hope to be able to undertake this from time to time in the early future.

The supreme importance of these problems should lift them far above the realm of partisan considerations or party politics. It is gratifying that both in the Congress and elsewhere great numbers of thoughtful men have so ap-

proached them. A heavy responsibility rests upon all of us to consider these all-important post-war problems and to contribute to their solution in a wholly non-partisan spirit.

STATEMENT BY THE SECRETARY OF STATE ON THE ANNIVERSARY OF THE MUKDEN INCIDENT

[Released to the press September 17]

Tomorrow, September 18, is the anniversary of the "Mukden incident". It is the anniversary of the beginning of Japanese military aggression against China in 1931. It is regarded in many quarters as dating the beginning of the present life-and-death struggle throughout the world in which peacefully minded nations are now engaged with the forces of aggression.

The Japanese occupied Manchuria and attacked Shanghai. They continued their aggressive campaign against the Chinese, principally in north China. The Chinese, resisting in spirit, but desiring to avoid general conflict, endeavored through negotiation to reach a peaceful settlement. On July 7, 1937 Japanese troops launched an unprovoked attack against Chinese troops near the Marco Polo bridge. Following that attack Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek made a stirring address in which he asked whether China had not reached the "limit of endurance"; declared that, if the limit had been reached, "we cannot do otherwise than resist"; and made an earnest appeal to the Chinese people: "Everyone everywhere will have to shoulder the responsibility for protecting the country and resisting the foe."

The Chinese people shouldered that responsibility.

At Shanghai in 1937 the cream of the Chinese armies gave battle to Japanese naval and military forces possessed of overwhelmingly superior equipment. These Chinese forces stood their ground, exacted a heavy toll, and were virtually destroyed before their remnants fell back.

Through six long years the Chinese people have stood staunchly behind their armies and, under circumstances of great economic deprivation and physical hardships, have continued bravely to oppose the enemy. When Nanking, the capital, fell, the Government moved to Hankow, and Chinese resistance continued. When Hankow fell the Government moved to Chungking, and China's resistance continued. Large Japanese armies have been engaged and contained in north, central, and south China, and their casualties and expenditures of materials have been great. They have won battles and they have lost battles but they have since 1938 made in China no substantial net gains. Three times they endeavored to take Changsha; and three times they failed. They have had many other failures, both military and political. To their repeated offers of a compromise peace, the Chinese have consistently refused to listen.

China's struggle has been and is our struggle—the struggle of the peace-seeking nations against the forces of aggression. Since Pearl Harbor we and other nations have joined forces with China. I am confident that, as more weapons become available, Chinese resistance will develop into offensive action and the enemy will be swept from Chinese soil.

Long having refused, against odds, to be conquered, China has made, is making, and will continue to make important contribution toward the common cause of victory over aggression and of establishing conditions of peace, freedom, and security through cooperative association and action on the part of the United Nations and united peoples.

ADHERENCE OF IRAN TO THE DECLARATION BY UNITED NATIONS

[Released to the press September 13]

The following exchange of communications took place between the Secretary of State and the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Iran, His Excellency Mohammad Saed, regarding Iran's declaration of a state of war against Germany and adherence to the Declaration by United Nations:

[Translation]

TEHRAN, *September 10, 1943.*

On this occasion when the Imperial Government, in view of the hostile activities displayed in Iran by German agents to create disorders in the country and in order to safeguard security and tranquility thus endangered, has seen itself obligated by right to declare the existence of a state of war between Iran and Germany, I have the honor to advise Your Excellency that my Government, with the approval of the Parliament, has just declared its adherence to the Declaration of United Nations of January 1, 1942. The Government and the Iranian Nation are happy to be in a position by this means to contribute in perfect collaboration and with the efficacious cooperation of their Allies to the achievement of the aims announced in the Atlantic Charter, based on the liberty of peoples and the safeguarding of a lasting peace, in order to be able to preserve world civilization from any attack and assure the happiness of humanity

to which aims my country has always shown its profound attachment. In view of this circumstance Mr. Shayesteh, Minister of Iran, has just been authorized to sign the above-mentioned Declaration.

SAED

SEPTEMBER 13, 1943.

I have received Your Excellency's telegram of September 10, 1943 regarding Iran's declaration of the existence of a state of war with Germany and adherence to the Declaration by United Nations. You state that the Iranian Government and the Iranian Nation are happy to be in a position thus to contribute to the achievement of the aims of the Atlantic Charter, based on the liberty of peoples and the safeguarding of a lasting peace in order in the future to preserve world civilization from attack and assure the happiness of humanity.

I assure you that the Government of the United States is very glad to welcome this formal association of Iran with the nations which are fighting for liberty and for the safeguarding of a just and lasting peace. I am pleased to inform you that arrangements have been made for your Minister at Washington to affix his signature tomorrow in connection with Iran's adherence to the Declaration by United Nations.

CORDELL HULL

HEALTH PROBLEMS IN OCCUPIED COUNTRIES

Address by James A. Crabtree ¹

[Released to the press September 15]

If one could visualize a vast community with a conglomerate of world-wide geographic and cultural pattern, containing more than a quarter of a billion people, some of whom have been in slavery for more than six years, others for a shorter time, 60 to 70 million of whom are virtually homeless, a great number destined to succumb to the great pestilences of war, notably

typhus, typhoid, dysentery, cholera, malaria, and tuberculosis, the majority of whom bear emotional scars as residuals of Gestapo-like treatment, and all of whom fall into one of two

¹ Delivered before the United Nations session at the meeting of the American Hospital Association, Buffalo, N. Y., Sept. 15, 1943. Dr. Crabtree is Chief Medical Officer of the Office of Foreign Relief and Rehabilitation Operations, Department of State.

categories—either starving or hungry—then one could conceive in hazy outline the health problems in occupied countries.

If I were required to list the first three public-health problems in the order of their urgency, I should not hesitate to place at the top of the list starvation. Epidemics, I think, might meet all other challenges for second place. Running a close third would be the special problem of maternity and infancy.

As one reads and studies the reports which come out from the several occupied territories, one cannot help but be impressed with the dominant role which such reports attach to the problem of hunger. It is interwoven in one way or another with practically every other major problem. It looms large as an independent entity among the causes of death; it exaggerates tenfold the problems of maternity and infancy; it contributes in considerable degree to the excess morbidity from malaria; it expresses itself in undue fatality rates for a whole host of diseases, notably typhus fever; and in its own insidious way, it is wiping out the gains of a generation in the world-wide movement toward the prevention and control of tuberculosis.

From the beginning of this war, food has been the sharp weapon of the Axis powers. Among the starving countries are occupied China, occupied Russia, Poland, Yugoslavia, and Greece. The hungry countries include all the rest, notably Belgium, France, the Netherlands, and Norway. It is in the distribution of food that racial and political discriminations have been most notorious.

Problems of epidemic disease are so inevitable that in some instances they can almost be foretold with mathematical precision.

The abrupt displacement of millions of people from their native to foreign environments, the break-down of sanitation and other health-protection services, the confiscation by the enemy of hospitals, drugs, and biological supplies, and the discriminatory policies covering the use by the native population of what remains, the overcrowding, the lack of food,

clothing, shelter, fuel, and soap—all these provide a backstage for bringing into boldest relief pestilence with all its variations.

Ominous warnings have already been given us by typhus fever in the Balkans; cases of malignant malaria in the Mediterranean countries alone are numbered in millions; the enteric diseases, particularly typhoid fever and bacillary dysentery, are on the increase in every occupied territory; diphtheria apparently has increased both in incidence and in severity; and over every country for which we have information considered trustworthy the dark shadow of tuberculosis becomes increasingly heavy.

Infant mortality has long been accepted as the most sensitive index of the health status of a people. Under the general conditions now prevailing in all occupied areas, it comes as no surprise to learn that infant-mortality rates have increased from 20 to more than 60 percent above their pre-war levels, that premature births and miscarriages have more than doubled in frequency, that hunger edema is listed among the leading causes of death among children, and that indeed in certain areas a second pregnancy during the war is considered tantamount to suicide.

To the extent that experiences following the last World War can be translated into present-day problems, one of the most difficult and seriously urgent issues to be met will be that of the care and repatriation of displaced persons. It is estimated that in Europe alone these people number from 10 to 20 million and that this number will greatly increase with the progress of Allied military operations. These people include prisoners of war, civilian internees, forced laborers, evacuees from military areas, political prisoners, internees for racial reasons, orphans, former residents of "blitzed" areas, and large groups of refugees who, escaping from their native countries to avoid the cruelties of the Gestapo, have become dispersed throughout practically the rest of the world.

The provision of the necessary medical facilities and public-health safeguards whereby

these people can be returned and restored to their homes and families will constitute one of the major public-health undertakings of relief and rehabilitation. Here one may anticipate the entire gamut of public-health problems with some emphasis on orphaned children, expectant mothers, the venereal diseases, and general illness, but with the whole picture dominated by epidemic disease.

Aside from such general infectious diseases as influenza, measles, meningitis, etc., these people returning from any area are potential sources of spread of smallpox, dysentery, and typhoid fever. Those returning from war-devastated areas may transmit malaria, typhus fever, or relapsing fever; yellow fever from certain areas of Africa; trachoma, hookworm, and leishmaniasis from Africa and the Middle East; cholera from Asia and the Middle East.

Finally, no broad outline of the over-all public-health picture would be adequate without reference to the problem of medical and sanitation supplies and materials.

No country, including our own, is entirely self-sufficient in the goods and materials needed specifically for the maintenance of health. Some of the occupied territories prior to the war were more or less self-sufficient; others were almost completely dependent upon imports. Today, however, all of them can be placed in one of two categories, that is, either deficient or destitute. With enemy-controlled conversion of manufacturing plants over to the production of war commodities, with the cutting-off of sources of supply of raw materials, with the lack of maintenance and replacement parts, and with the shortages of manpower, particularly within these technical skills, health and sanitation commodities throughout all occupied areas are in extremely short supply. This is especially true in the case of expendable goods, such as pharmaceuticals, biologics, chemicals for water purification, and expendable hospital supplies. For non-expendable materials the problem is undoubtedly spotty in distribution. There is reason to believe, for example, that in such countries as Greece, Poland, Yugoslavia, and occupied Russia, the so-called destitution factor

as related to hospital equipment may be practically 100 percent, while in other areas it may be relatively small.

These are the essential highlights, as we see them, of the public-health problems which must be met as efforts are successful in liberating the people of occupied countries.

From a technical point of view, it would be relatively easy to outline the measures which could be taken to meet these problems with reasonable effectiveness. Yet the measures themselves, when considered as a program of action, all point to the fundamental problem of public-health organization and personnel within the countries in question. These two elements are basic to any thoughtfully conceived program of action, and they will determine, in the last analysis, whether this war in the pattern of all others before it is to be followed by pestilence and disease far more destructive of human life than war casualties themselves. It is hardly necessary here to emphasize that this concept of the strategic position of the official health organization and of the reliance that must be placed upon it to solve its own problems, using outside help and assistance only to support it, underlies the basic philosophy of the organization which I represent.

The Office of Foreign Relief and Rehabilitation Operations, created almost a year ago, is the instrument through which plans for our Government's participation in health and medical assistance to reoccupied countries are being made.

Let me again emphasize that our work from the very beginning has been geared to the principle that we must help the people of the occupied countries help themselves and that full reliance must be placed upon each national government to the extent that it becomes stabilized, to provide for its own people as far as its resources will permit.

We believe, however, that there are problems ahead which go far beyond the capacities of individual areas and for which America must contribute her share of aid, not only for reasons of humanitarianism but also to assist in speeding the successful prosecution of the war.

Obviously, our program to date has been essentially planning at home rather than working abroad. Efforts are being made to collect all information available regarding epidemics and other health problems, including nutrition, of the various countries. With the assistance of an Advisory Health Committee and appropriate technical subcommittees, our staff is engaged in translating this information into terms of needed supplies and personnel and is endeavoring to build up a reservoir of both goods and people to be drawn upon as required.

In the field of medical and sanitation supplies our work has of necessity moved fairly rapidly. With large numbers of essential health and medical commodities in relatively short supply, it is imperative that forward buying programs be initiated as far in advance of anticipated need as possible, in order that delivery schedules may be adjusted to the practical realities of plant capacity, manpower, and raw materials. Even under the wisest procurement policy and with a maximum of good luck, it is clear that the productive resources of the Allied nations will fall short of meeting all the legitimate requirements of the occupied territories for health and medical supplies. Yet I think it safe to say that the United States can provide its appropriate share of the absolutely basic essentials without detriment to the continuing efficiency of our own health services and institutions.

To meet the varying conditions in prospective relief theaters, we are assembling several different types of "packaged" units of supplies for immediate shipment to any area of need. One of these is a so-called "emergency unit" containing only the items required for the treatment and control of those diseases known to be of world-wide occurrence. This unit is designed to care for the needs of a group of 100 thousand people for one month. Multiples of this unit can be shipped into any area of medical relief activities during the very earliest stages of operations with reasonable assurance that the basic health needs can be met with a minimum of waste of supplies.

In addition to the emergency unit, supplemental supplies are being provided for combating diseases peculiar to certain regions or for diseases in epidemic form.

Similarly, reserves of hospital and laboratory supplies and equipment are being built up primarily to deal with epidemics and secondarily to relieve to some extent the destitution which the areas will have reached in commodities of this character.

Experience in North Africa to date, though limited, has been useful in pointing up some of the problems which undoubtedly lie ahead. For the past six months, we have had a small medical staff attached to the North African Relief and Rehabilitation Mission. Our medical officers, working in close cooperation with the Allied armies, have been concerned primarily with the impact of military operations upon civilian health. In any activity affecting the civilian population, they work through the French health authorities, utilizing fully existing health and medical services.

They not only participated in the immediate relief program in Tunisia but actually accompanied the forces occupying Pantelleria and Lampedusa and marshaled local facilities for public-health and medical care.

A principal task since their arrival has been to give technical assistance to the French authorities in estimating and adjusting to available supply requirements for drugs and other medical and sanitation commodities. Another task has been to assist the French in restoring normal health services in rural areas, and particularly in regions where the impact of military operations has been most severe.

Although experience in North Africa undoubtedly will prove in some respects to be far from typical, it is providing a general insight into some of the problems to come in other areas. The first immediate problem from the point of view of the public health is hunger; the picture is dominated secondly by epidemic disease; thirdly, the problem of displaced persons; and finally, the question of organizing and marshaling national and local resources, including sup-

plies, personnel, and institutions, to meet the issues as they arise.

As we interpret reports from the field, every feature of our experience to date points up the importance of local institutions and resources and emphasizes their latent power when once again given an opportunity to do constructive work, thus confirming the essential soundness of our basic policy, that is, of helping the people help themselves.

With only this experience in North Africa as a guide to date, we are proceeding slowly in recruiting American personnel for health service abroad. A limited number of health teams are being brought together, however, for work in areas which may be opened for relief activities in the near future. In the absence of more detailed knowledge of actual needs, we are including as a nucleus of the health team of each foreign mission a chief medical officer, a sanitary engineer, a pediatrician, a medical nutritionist, a medical supply officer, a public-health nurse, and for certain areas depending upon circumstances, a hospital administrator, a malariologist, an entomologist, and perhaps an expert in each of such fields as tuberculosis and tropical diseases.

I would again emphasize that the prime responsibility of these people will be to assist in the organization and strengthening of official health services and in gearing them to meet needs which in some respects will have no precedent in their history.

Although we cannot now foretell the number of American personnel that will be needed, we do have convictions as to what their general qualifications should be. They must be experienced in American methods of administration and well abreast of modern technics in medicine and hygiene, yet thoroughly tolerant of the technical points of view of their colleagues in other countries; they must be mature in judgment, yet physically fit to withstand the rigors of living and working in a war-torn environment; in undertaking their tasks they must be motivated by the highest ideals of service and not by mere considerations of adventure. Though their

training over here will have been appraised in the light of their knowledge of refinements of American methods and technics, they must view the public-health problems over there in the proper perspective of deep-rooted cultural patterns and social institutions, and they must recognize the necessity, in many areas, for approaching problems at their very grass roots, where the very essence of public health, such as housing, agriculture, food, and shelter must be taken into *account* and not, as over here, taken for *granted*; and, finally, they must uphold the dignity to which each of them will have been lifted in the eyes of liberated peoples by the traditions of our democracy.

Never before in the long succession of wars that have arisen to halt temporarily the progress in human relationships have so many people, at the very time they were fighting for free existence, been so preoccupied with problems of peace.

The two great obligations facing the liberty-loving people throughout the world today are first, to make every possible contribution toward a speedy and complete military victory, and second, to develop and maintain policies and programs of action that will make secure a peace between nations.

No two people would probably have identical concepts of what precisely is meant by peace. Certainly it is some form of orderly world society in which human needs can be reasonably satisfied. Certainly victory in itself is not peace. A peace which is likely to be lasting must be conceived in intelligence, derived in a spirit of compassion for man's welfare and security, and maintained through some form of dynamic instrument for international collaboration and cooperation.

Public health in all its phases is eminently suited to serve as one spearhead for the progressive movement toward an eventual world society of nations. As such it assumes a major role in meeting the challenge for a durable peace. The vastness and drama of this challenge are second only to that of winning the war.

FACILITIES FOR NEWS CORRESPONDENTS PROVIDED BY ALLIED HEADQUARTERS IN NORTH AFRICA

[Released to the press September 18]

The following summary of facilities afforded correspondents by Allied Force Headquarters in North Africa was issued jointly by the State and War Departments on August 11, 1943:

Allied Force Headquarters is providing facilities for more than 125 press and radio correspondents and photographers to tell the world the story of military and political developments in the North African theater.

The number and distribution of the correspondents in the theater varies from week to week. On August 10, 1943, a total of 129 press and radio correspondents and photographers were accredited to Allied Force Headquarters and on active duty. This number included 68 Americans, 36 British correspondents exclusive of Canadians, 20 Canadians, 2 French correspondents, and 3 miscellaneous. Of the total approximately 50 were in Algiers and the others in Sicily at advanced air or naval bases or with the Royal and United States Navies.

The task of providing housing, food, transportation, and copy-transmission facilities to this number of correspondents in an active military theater where accommodations are limited or non-existent has taxed the resources of the public-relations officers of AFHQ. The results, particularly the matter of convenient and comfortable living and working quarters, often have left much to be desired, in the view of the public-relations officers themselves as well as in that of the correspondents. Generally, however, they have been the best that could be achieved under the circumstances of material and human limitations.

Military requirements naturally have priority on all facilities in such a theater of operations as North Africa, with resulting limitation on the accommodations and facilities available for correspondents. The number of press and radio representatives who can be accepted for work in the theater, therefore, is limited by (a)

the available housing and transportation accommodations and (b) copy-transmission facilities.

The War Establishment of the British Public Relations Service was framed to control 24 correspondents. Since this number is exceeded by 12, the strain on accommodations obviously has increased. The unexpected arrival of a large number of Canadian correspondents added to accommodation and communication difficulties.

The American Public Relations Officer limited American correspondents to six for each news service, three for each radio network, two each for newspapers which operate a foreign-news service, one each for individual newspapers, and one to each magazine. Photographers were admitted freely, since they operated as a pool for the entire American press. In addition, special writers and columnists have been admitted from time to time at the request of the War Department Bureau of Public Relations.

All the public-information media mentioned quickly filled their quotas. An unexpectedly large number of representatives of individual newspapers and columnists applied for accreditation. At times correspondents allocated to the Navy would turn up in Algiers. This led to severe strain on accommodations and communication facilities. Because of this, the Public Relations Officer currently is preparing an over-all ceiling plan for an unalterable top number of correspondents. He proposes to send this plan to the War Department with a request for approval.

In overcrowded Algiers, the Public Relations Officer has seven requisitioned rooms in a convenient downtown hotel available for the use of correspondents. From two to five correspondents live in one room, but still it has not been possible to accommodate all the correspondents in this central lodging place. Some have found their own villas and apartments, others have been billeted in somewhat remote

and unsuitable quarters by the general AFHQ billeting officer, and still others have crowded into the already filled hotel rooms in emergencies. All the correspondents have the privilege of eating at Army officers' messes.

Transportation into the theater and to various points within the theater also is provided by Army authorities. Depending on the urgency of their travel and the facilities available, correspondents travel either in Army planes or motor vehicles to North African points outside Algiers. Both planes and fast surface transportation were available for correspondents going to and returning from Sicily. A limited number of vehicles are available for transportation within Algiers. Some of the correspondents have bought or rented their own automobiles but depend on the Army for gasoline.

The Army has shared its communication facilities with the correspondents, transmitting millions of words of press copy over Army Signal Corps circuits free of charge to supplement limited commercial cable and radio facilities. Something new in the transmission of news stories was inaugurated last December—the "voicecast" system. Correspondents turn over some of their copy to the radio division of the Public Relations Branch, and an Army announcer reads the stories over the air while they are copied in the correspondents' home offices. Two periods daily of voice transmission have been established, and as much as 17 thousand words of copy a day have been transmitted in this fashion.

Through the first part of August, all copy from the Sicilian front was flown by air courier either to Malta or to Algiers for censorship and transmission. From Malta, copy is transmitted over high-speed wireless of Cable & Wireless, Ltd. From Algiers, it is sent through United States Army Signal Corps facilities to Washington, via the previously mentioned voice broadcast; via Mackay Radio direct to New York City; via wireless high-speed transmitter of Cable & Wireless, Ltd., to the United Kingdom; via cable to Gibraltar for relay from there by Cable & Wireless, Ltd.

A designated number of words are being lifted each day from the load borne by the Signal Corps and transferred to the commercial Mackay channel. This will be continued until the Signal Corps is relieved of all press traffic. However, the Signal Corps has agreed to stand by and pick up the load again in case of emergency.

Algiers channels can handle a press file of 80 thousand words daily. Malta wireless handles 40 thousand words daily and sometimes slightly more. It is anticipated that future operations will require the dispatch of a minimum of 130 thousand words a day on peak days.

Through the cooperation of the Psychological Warfare Branch of the Information and Censorship Section of AFHQ, the Public Relations Officer is setting up wireless Morse and voicecast facilities in Sicily, so that a certain amount of traffic can be handled from there. Experiments on the transmitters sent to Sicily already are being conducted as of August 10. The success of these experiments will determine the number of correspondents who will be able to file from Sicily in the future. The initial experiments indicated that eventually 80 thousand words a day can be transmitted from Sicily to the United Kingdom and the United States. If this proves possible, most of the correspondents in Algiers will go to Sicily, and a large public-relations headquarters will be necessary there.

In Algiers, the Public Relations Branch has provided for the use of the correspondents a press room, adjacent to a copy room where press copy is submitted for censorship and transmission. Qualified officers go into the press room as often as military developments require—usually several times daily—to read communiqués and give supplementary explanations of the land, air, and naval situation. Frequently press conferences are arranged with officers fresh from some operation or specially qualified to tell the correspondents about some particular activity.

All press copy is examined by Army censors to make sure that no information of value to the

enemy is inadvertently transmitted in a news story. The only censorship exercised is on the grounds of military security. Since last January there has been no political censorship. It has been difficult to draw the line in some cases between military and civilian censorship, correspondents sometimes contending that cuts made by the censor in a political news story amounted to political censorship. The rule has been, however—and the British and American civil representatives in Algiers have insisted on this—that any cut made by the censors in press copy be justified solely on military security grounds.

Full cooperation of the Allied army and civil authorities is extended the correspondents for reporting political news. Communication and other facilities are used without any distinction between strictly military and political news. The correspondents who do not have their own automobiles also use what limited transportation facilities the Public Relations Branch has available for going to press conferences held by members of the French Committee of National Liberation, covering meetings of the Committee, etc. Communiqués of the Committee are posted on the bulletin board in the AFHQ press room, and its telephone facilities are used by the correspondents in contacting various political news sources.

Robert D. Murphy, President Roosevelt's representative in Algiers, and Harold MacMillan, British Resident Minister, held several joint "background" press conferences to give the correspondents the most accurate information at their disposal and keep them informed about Allied policy during the critical period of the formation of the Committee of National Liberation.

In addition to the regularly accredited correspondents in the North African theater for military and political reporting, AFHQ permitted 10 correspondents above the quota limitations to enter the theater for a 30-day period soon after General DeGaulle's arrival in Algiers. These were British and American correspondents assigned especially to report the political situa-

tion, augmenting the work of the regularly accredited correspondents covering both military and political news.

To meet requests for increased facilities for special political news reporting, the Public Relations Officer now has agreed to accept an additional quota of correspondents for the special purpose of writing on political matters. At first, this quota is limited to three British and three Americans because of the limitations on accommodations and communication facilities, but is expected to be increased as soon as war correspondents already in Algiers move forward. In view of the established quota arrangements for reporters with military assignments in the theater, the additional correspondents under this plan will not be entitled to cover military news. AFHQ will cooperate in arranging housing, transportation, and communication facilities for them.

The Information Commissariat of the French Committee of National Liberation has set up a press room near the AFHQ Public Relations headquarters, and it is expected that the correspondents assigned especially to cover the French political situation will work from this office.

The Department

APPOINTMENT OF OFFICERS

By Departmental Order 1199 of September 13, 1943, the Secretary of State designated Mr. H. Freeman Matthews, a Foreign Service officer of class I, as Chief of the Division of European Affairs, effective August 19, 1943.

Legislation

Progress of the War: Message from the President of the United States transmitting a report to Congress on the subject of the progress of the war. H. Doc. 272, 78th Cong. 12 pp.

General

AFRICA: MAPS AND MAN

Address by S. W. Boggs¹

[Released to the press September 17]

Nothing in the annals of geographic discovery seems stranger than the belatedness of African exploration. Although ancient civilizations flourished in Mediterranean Africa, it is only within the lifetime of men still among us that the elementary geography of the interior of the continent became known. The great rivers and lakes of North and South America were better known within two centuries of Columbus' voyages than were the Nile, the Niger, the Congo, and the Zambezi and the great African lakes a hundred years ago. By 1850 even the exploration of the Arctic and Antarctic left problems perhaps no more baffling than those of central Africa. This apparent anomaly in geographic exploration is not a historical accident, however, but due in large part to the character of Africa's coasts and ocean currents, its topography, climate, and vegetation—factors that affect Africa's future as certainly as they have influenced its past.

The naming of the second largest continent came slowly, because for so many centuries the great land mass was not an object of concrete experience. The name seems to have been derived from a Berber community, *Afriga*, a district south of Carthage, and the Roman province, *Africa*, corresponded approximately to Tunisia of our day. The names *Libya* and *Ethiopia* long extended over much greater portions of the map than did the name *Africa*. If we were to look at maps that have come down to us during a score of centuries we would see how slowly geographical knowledge of Africa grew and would better appreciate why Stanley called it the "Dark Continent".

Herodotus ascended the Nile as far as the first cataract about 450 B.C. and called Egypt the

"gift of the Nile" as he perceived how that great river brings water and silt from unknown sources across a hundred miles of desert sand. Hearing apparently of the Niger river system south of the vast Sahara barrier, he believed it to be the source of the Nile, reaching Upper Egypt after a series of long subterranean journeys. That idea persisted on European maps for more than 2,000 years.

About 150 years earlier, Pharaoh Necho had dispatched an expedition of Phoenicians, the great mariners of their day, starting them south through the Red Sea, and ordering them to follow the coasts until they should enter the Pillars of Hercules, and continue through the Mediterranean to Egypt. Generally favored by ocean currents and winds, as they would be in clockwise circumnavigation of Africa, they apparently succeeded, sailing into the Strait of Gibraltar in the third year. Herodotus did not believe that they had sailed around "Libya", partly because they reported that they had the sun on their right, or to the north, in the southern part of their journey. We can only speculate what might have been the effect on subsequent exploration if Herodotus had handed down the story of this great expedition of more than 2,500 years ago as credible history.

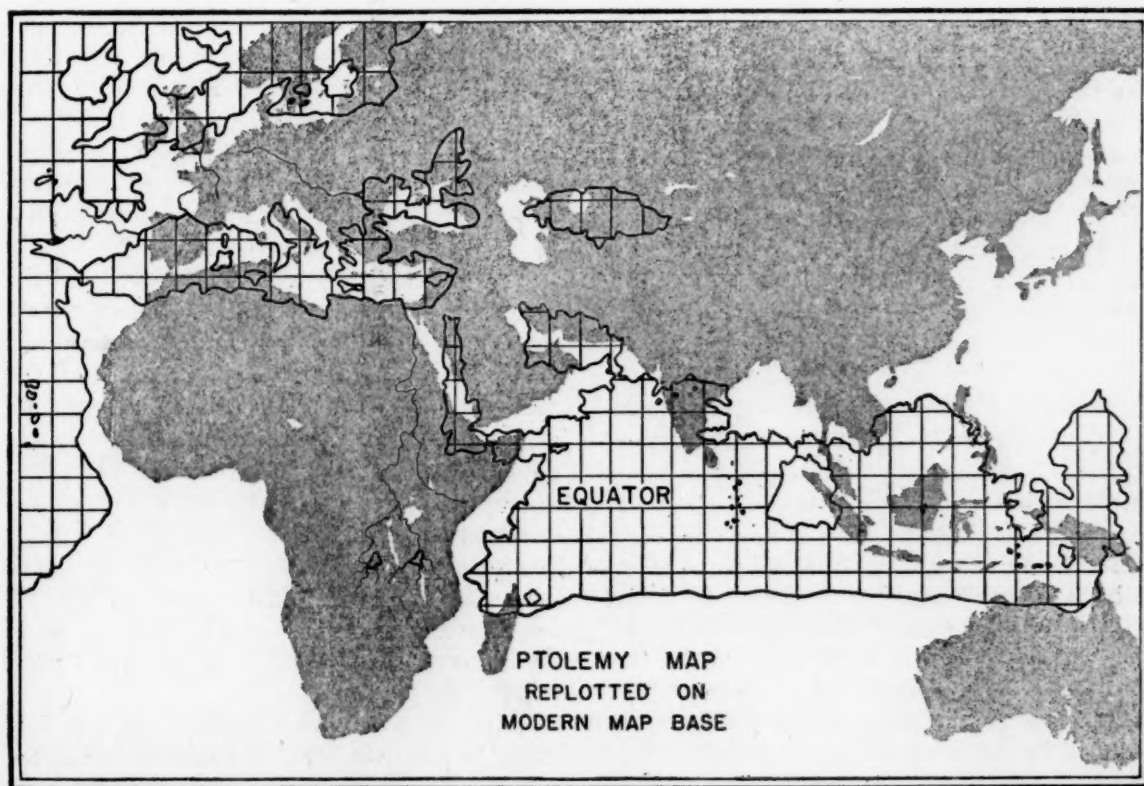
The great astronomer and geographer Claudius Ptolemy, of Alexandria, may have been the first to lay down meridians and parallels to constitute a map projection on which places were represented according to latitude and longitude. Coasts, rivers, and cities were positioned on the map largely from vague estimates of direction

¹ Delivered at a meeting of the Association of American Geographers, Washington, Sept. 17. Mr. Boggs is the Geographer of the Department of State.

and distance obtained from manuscripts and from the testimony of contemporary travelers. Latitude was obtained or corrected by occasional astronomical observations. True longitude relationships required determination of the time of day simultaneously at widely separated places, and about the only means was to note the difference of time of recorded eclipses, which were seldom available, whereas we now use chronometers, telegraph, and wireless.

Ptolemy's world map may best be evaluated by replotting it upon a modern map. Ptolemy unfortunately did not accept the remarkably accurate determination of the circumference of

the spherical earth made some three centuries earlier by Eratosthenes, but used the later figure of Poseidonius. He therefore greatly overestimated his east-west distances measured as longitude, which conversely accounted in part for the subsequent underestimate of the distance westward from Europe to Asia, ultimately encouraging Columbus to attempt his great voyages. From Greek explorers of the east coast of Africa Ptolemy had learned of two great lakes as the sources of the Nile, south of the equator, near the "Mountains of the Moon"—whose snow-covered peaks were not again reported by white men until 1888.



PTOLEMY'S MAP REPLOTED ON A MODERN MAP BASE

Ptolemy's map of the known world, as of the second century A.D., is here replotted and superposed on the new Miller cylindrical projection. It is here adjusted

to the equator and to the meridian of Alexandria, Egypt. Note the sources of the Nile in two lakes supposed to be south of the equator; also the excessive east-west distances measured as longitude and the supposed enclosure of the Indian Ocean by extensions of Africa and Asia.

Roman Africa stopped with the Sahara. Rome added little to African geography, although Nero sent an expedition to solve the mystery of the sources of the Nile, pushing the limit of the known world southward to within four degrees of the equator.

During the centuries which the peoples of European outlook call the "Middle Ages" European exploration of Africa remained in abeyance. In Europe, geographical knowledge of Africa, Asia, and even parts of Europe actually contracted and merged with legend and fable, while in Asia, Mongols, Turks, and Arabs were expanding their knowledge.

A form of map known as "T-O" maps came into being, and an extremely large number were made. A circumfluent ocean constituted an "O" encircling the known lands. As the term *orient* implies, east was at the top—with proper regard for Jerusalem, as viewed from Europe. A vertical line in the Mediterranean separated Europe and Africa, and a horizontal line crossed the "T", representing the Don and Nile Rivers, which constituted the western limit of Asia. Probably St. Augustine had such a map before him when he wrote a certain passage in *The City of God*.

These and other fanciful maps of the time illustrate the absence of an adventuring and inquiring attitude without which exploration of foreign lands was impossible.

Then from Arabia came Islam with dynamic force, eager to explore new lands. Moslems translated Aristotle and Ptolemy into Arabic, mediating Greek learning to Europe. They also developed the art of navigation to a new level. Northern and northeastern Africa became Mohammedan, and Moslem traders penetrated south of the Sahara into the Sudan—Negro territory.

Europe began to become Africa-conscious when Prince Henry of Portugal, early in the fifteenth century, learned about Africa and navigation from the Moors. Fired with contemporary crusading zeal, he initiated scientific navigation and dispatched expeditions that developed frequent contact with Africa around the bulge and along the Guinea coast. His efforts

helped to make the name and influence of Portugal great, but contributed to the establishment of the slave trade by nations that professed Christianity, a traffic that had long been practiced by the Arabs and other peoples, especially along the east coast of Africa.

Late in the fifteenth century Portuguese explorers surged boldly around unknown Africa. Bartholomew Diaz in 1488 crossed the equator and, against adverse currents, journeyed as far south of it as Gibraltar lies to the north and made certain that he had passed the farthest southern point of Africa before he had to turn back. Then, about the time of Columbus' third voyage westward, Vasco da Gama swept around Africa and made his way to India, encountering there and in East Africa the Moslem forces that had made impossible such a journey by the short route through the Red Sea.

These and succeeding voyages to India and the east resulted in little more than the establishment of coastal "factories" and trading posts with the interior, whence came slaves, gold, and ivory for two centuries.

The Diego Ribero map, 1529, portrayed the broadened knowledge obtained largely in less than a half century. However, it placed the sources of the Nile and the "Mountains of the Moon" in southern Africa, and the east-west extent of the continent was conspicuously excessive. Long thereafter the maps of Africa showed enormous lakes far south of the equator as sources of the Nile, a great westward-flowing river almost from the Nile to the Atlantic, and the names *Libya* and *Ethiopia* spread far into southern Africa. There was no true concept of the Niger or the Congo Rivers nor of the great lakes of the east.

The Blue Nile, rising in Ethiopia, was first traced by Bruce in 1771. The true nature of the course of the Niger, on whose upper course lay the famed and overrated Timbuktu, was not known to Europeans until Mungo Park's journeys, 1795–1805, and Lander, 1831. Great names crowd the annals of central African exploration in the latter half of the nineteenth century—among them Burton, Speke, Livingstone, and Stanley—when the Lakes Victoria, Tan-

ganyika, and Nyassa were found, and the Congo, Zambezi, and upper Nile traced and mapped in their essential character. The belatedness of African exploration cannot better be indicated than by the fact that in 1876, when H. M. Stanley resumed his study of Lake Tanganyika, he was uncertain whether its waters, via the Lukuga River, belonged to the system of the Nile, the Congo, or the Zambezi.

PHYSICAL AFRICA

What have the physical features of Africa to do with this remarkable delay in the exploration of almost the entire continent south of the part that belongs more to Europe than to Africa?

First, the Sahara is an obstacle even greater than its vast size suggests. Only the camel made its crossing possible, and what pay-load was worth the long, difficult journey?

Second, the nature of the coasts is a serious handicap. With an area three times that of Europe, the coastline of Africa is only about four fifths as long—in spite of Europe's broad attachment to Asia. The remarkably smooth, curved coastline is nearly harborless, and there are no widely entrant indentations of the coasts and no large peninsulas with sheltering islands nearby.

Third, the currents and winds in general favored clockwise navigation of sailing ships, down the east coast and up the west. Arab penetration from the east was thus assisted by nature. The going south from Europe was much more difficult and hazardous.

Fourth, the continent is largely a plateau and is like an inverted saucer, with very narrow coastal plains. The great rivers are not navigable from the sea and their interior courses are broken by falls and cataracts, notably the Congo. There are no navigable rivers comparable with the Amazon, the Mississippi, the St. Lawrence, the Rhine, the Danube, the Yangtze.

Fifth, climate and vegetation, which is immediately dependent upon it, added greatly to the obstacles of exploration. Only a portion of the southern tip of Africa enjoys a Mediter-

ranean type of climate similar to a narrow coastal strip of Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia. Africa is the most tropical of the continents. Luxuriant vegetation flourishes in steaming, torrid heat and high humidity. The tropical rain forest, tropical grassland or savanna, and the hot desert, all have great heat in common.

Furthermore it should be remembered that continental unity has little reality save as a continuous obstacle to navigation by sea. It may be easier to circumnavigate the earth in a sailing vessel than to make a long overland journey on foot or even up unknown rivers. Stanley's porters laboriously carried the parts of a small steamer, the *Lady Alice*, with which they navigated Lake Victoria, Lake Tanganyika, and the upper courses of the Congo River.

WORLD RELATIONSHIPS

Since the days of the great explorations, ending about 60 years ago, the hitherto unknown portions of Africa have been almost catapulted into relationships with the rest of the world. With a great stream of vital raw materials now coming out of Africa and a vast network of strategic air services crossing the continent, it is difficult to appreciate the inhibitions, the terrors of the unknown, and the very real physical obstacles that so recently isolated Africa. What is happening to Africa with accentuated abruptness, however, epitomizes what is happening to the world as a whole.

Political relationships

The political map of Africa signifies the most important relationship of practically all parts of the continent with the outside world. As recently as 1876 the map showed little more than a fringe of small coastal colonies. Some of the Portuguese small holdings and all of those of the Netherlands had changed hands, and the embryos of the greater British and French empires appear. The geographical secrets of the interior had just been revealed, and astonishing discoveries in diamonds in 1866 had touched off an eager and frequently futile rush to find sudden riches in many areas.

The Congress of Berlin of 1884-85 failed in its effort to provide international supervision of colonial administrations but attempted to establish freedom of trade, for all nations, within the Congo basin.

Within the first decade of the twentieth century practically all of Africa had been absorbed by the colonial powers, and by 1934 the present boundaries of colonies and dependencies had been established and the former German colonies had become mandated territories. The colonial expansion inland from the coasts and delimitation of these territories proceeded without much regard for native societies. In the words of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* as applied to the west-coast areas, "This international patchwork persists".

Railroads and roads are patterned to conform to the political boundaries, and development of the continent is conditioned to the political map. Colonial administration has made notable progress in many parts of the continent since the beginning of the century, and today in various areas it has come to take a long-range view and makes a genuine effort to protect the interest of the native peoples.

Economic and trade relationships

Africa's commercial relationships with the world depend largely upon its present and potential agricultural and mineral production.

As the most tropical continent, Africa includes one of the great regions that is complementary to the areas in northern mid-latitudes, including much of Europe and the United States, in which industry and commerce have developed greatly. Vegetable oils, in Africa chiefly from the oil palm and the peanut (the latter transplanted from tropical America), were one of the objects of interest of the European powers during the period of colonial partition.

Of the various agricultural products exported from Africa, cereals are at present first in importance, chiefly from North Africa, and then from South Africa. Cotton is next, from Egypt and East Africa. Oil seeds and vege-

table oils rank third and cacao fourth in point of value.

The mineral endowment of Africa is very great, and it is important to the rest of the world. Ninety-eight percent of the world's diamonds are produced in Africa. The diamonds essential in drilling machinery and other industrial uses are now mined chiefly in Belgian Congo.

In 1938 Africa produced about $\frac{1}{10}$ of the world's cobalt, $\frac{2}{5}$ of the phosphate rock, $\frac{2}{5}$ of the gold. One third of the world's vanadium and a third of the chromite have been coming out of Africa. The largest manganese mine in the world is in the Gold Coast, and there are extensive reserves of this important mineral in South Africa.

The great copper production from Belgian Congo and Northern Rhodesia comes at low cost from very high-grade ores, and the reserves are very large.

An eighth of the tin comes from Africa, and much more may come in the future. Almost all of these minerals, and others available in Africa, are vital in modern industry.

Coal and petroleum for industry and transportation have not been discovered in great quantities, and much of the continent may have to depend upon fuel wood and local hydroelectric power. About one third of the world's estimated water-power reserves are estimated to reside in the Congo and Niger River systems—much of it so expensive to develop that it may never be utilized unless it proves worthwhile in a world-integrated economy.

Transportation and communications

Interrelationships between peoples and continents now depend upon transport which is machine-powered, because in the last analysis it is so much more economical of human effort. In Africa, the waterways navigable to steamers include the magnificent great lakes of the eastern-central part of the continent and portions of the principal rivers—always interrupted by rapids and cataracts—notably the Nile and the Congo. Nowhere is there a railway network except in

western Mediterranean Africa and a portion of the Union of South Africa. Motorable roads are already fairly extensive and are developing steadily.

The movement of goods in both native and international trade in parts of the continent is still dependent solely upon primitive transport. In the Belgian Congo, at least, Europeans are no longer permitted to hire porters, thus conserving labor and encouraging the use of motor roads.

The world of transportation costs, in which Africa finds an important place through trade and commerce, can scarcely be visualized on maps even with the most striking contrasts of color, because the differences are so nearly astronomic. They might be comprehended more readily by means of an electric globe, the construction of which would be analogous to electric-power transmission systems. Cover the high seas, where freight can be moved at $\frac{1}{10}$ cent a ton-mile, with silver (the best electrical conductor) or with silver wires connecting all the world's ports; the navigable high seas will be insulated from the coasts except at ports; for railroads select a steel alloy wire whose electrical resistance is about 10 times that of silver; then choose wire and strands of other materials with from 20 times to 10 thousand times the resistance of silver for roads, caravan routes, and trails traveled by auto trucks, horses and wagons, pack animals, and human porters. The rest of the globe should be covered with an almost perfect insulating, non-conducting material such as glass or porcelain. Now, with delicate instruments determine the relative electrical resistance between alternate routes to find which way freight will move between any two points. You will come to realize that, whereas "a thousand years are as one day" with the Lord of the universe, a thousand miles by ocean freighter are as a fraction of a mile over the Burma Road, with man who regards himself "lord of the earth".

What the airplane will do for Africa and for the world no one can foretell. When someone can fly a thousand miles and drop bread

or a bomb beside me, the question "Who is my neighbor?" becomes more puzzling than ever. In any event, it will soon be physically possible for someone from another continent to drop down almost anywhere in Africa and inquire of the local inhabitants what they have in their subsoil or what they can produce on their land which would be of interest to the rest of the world. And the movement of goods by air, while much more expensive than by sea or even by railroad or motor road, is generally more economical than transport by human porters or pack animals. The airplane surmounts the handicaps of Africa's long stretches of harborless coasts and its lack of great rivers navigable from the sea. In undeveloped regions air freight and express will tend to supplant primitive transport except over very short distances and to bridge gaps between the railroads, motor roads, and steamship services, at least until more economical surface facilities can be provided. No one can prophesy what the map of air services in Africa even a decade hence will look like.

This rapidly changing world—of which Africa is an integral part—is frequently called "a shrinking world", represented pictorially by a series of smaller and smaller globes, for the horse-and-buggy days, railroad travel, and finally airplanes. However, the term "shrinking" is quite misleading. The significant fact is that the reduction of time multiplies the achievement which is possible in any unit of time. The world of experience is rapidly expanding for all mankind, whether regarded from the viewpoint of the individual or of corporate groups or nations. Our lives may be expanded and enriched because we can go farther and do more, and friends from great distances may come to us. We should realize, on the other hand, that modern technology, in vastly increasing the distance at which practically all forces may operate with great effect, makes intensification of rivalries possible, even to the ends of the earth, if they are not curbed and controlled.

Some geographical relationships

Picture for yourself a native school in central Africa in which a native teacher is teaching geography to the coming generation. Today she has a map of Africa before the pupils, and she has at her disposal basic knowledge of lakes and river systems unknown to a human soul a century ago, and has probably had personal experience with river steamers or railroads, automobiles, airplanes, and radios. Next month or next year the pupils may study the United States, or Asia, or a world map. They are learning something about us, much of it not in the classroom. They need not recapitulate our mistakes, in information and attitudes, but may be conducted directly, by routes of understanding adapted to their own background, into sane relationships with the whole world.

There are but few great physical barriers to the extension of mechanized transport in Africa, and the native peoples will thereby have contacts which are constantly widening. At least in the great Bantu area the numerous languages are closely related, and there are already important *linguae francae* and increasing use of English, French, and other European languages throughout Africa that enable one to move about without great difficulty. Less dissimilarity of cultures than in most other great areas and the absence of nationalistic traditions tend to facilitate integration of African societies. Public-health measures are reducing the death rate, especially the high infant mortality, and the relatively sparse population is likely to increase rapidly in some areas, further tending to bring the peoples into closer touch with one another and with the world.

The peoples of Africa have many problems, some of them very new. They cannot be solved by wishful thinking. "Longing for home cannot take you across the river" is a Mongo proverb. The problems of the native peoples cannot be solved by integrating or organizing the continent or large regions in opposition to other continents or regions. It will be normal for many communities or small

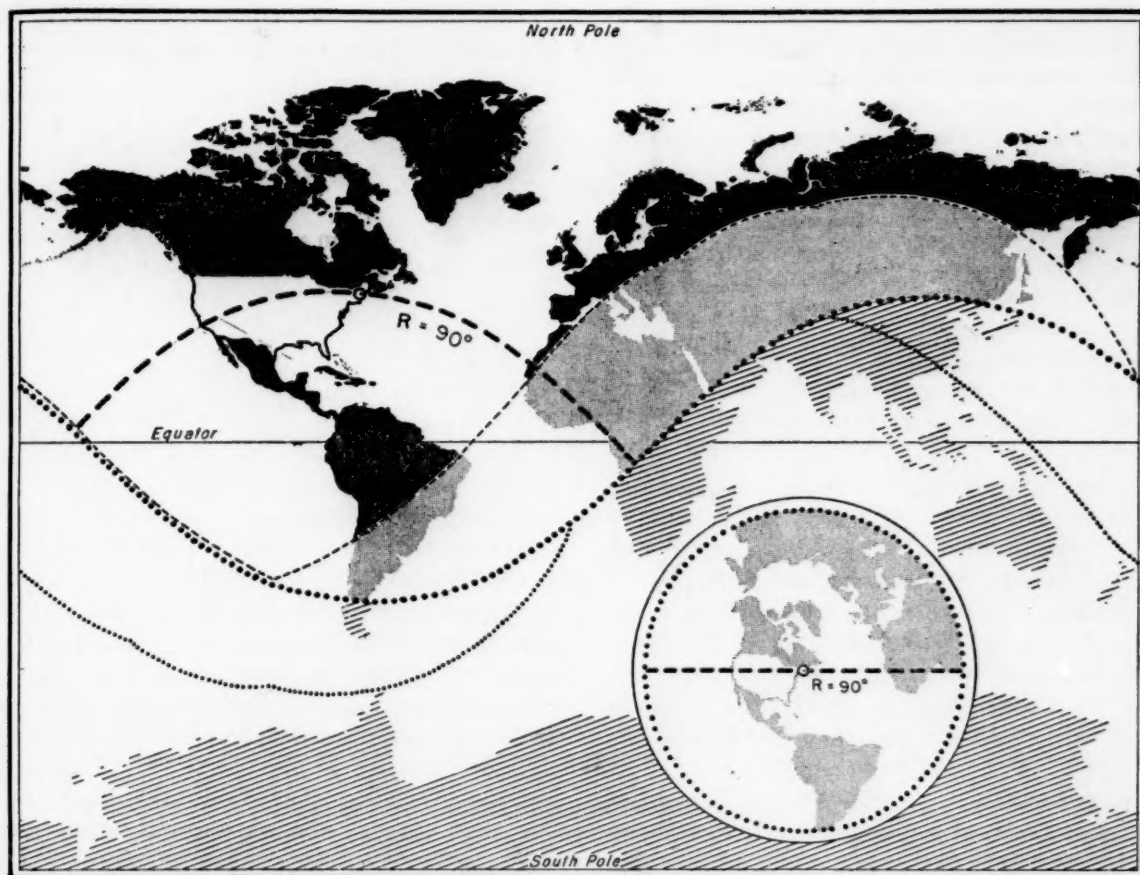
regions in Africa to maintain closer relations with distant parts of the world than with nearby portions of their own continent. The peoples of Africa cannot alter the fact that they live in the same world with the peoples of Europe, Asia, and the Americas.

What, then, of our adaptation to Africa? We shall need to unlearn some of our old geography and to learn some new geography relating to Africa. We should become aware, in the first place, that it is commonly underrated as to area, partly because, on the usual type of maps, especially Mercator's, the land areas of northern Asia, Europe, and North America are so greatly exaggerated. As may be seen on a globe, it is as far east-west across Africa, from Dakar to Cape Guardafui, as it is across Russian territory from Odessa on the Black Sea to Bering Strait.

We also frequently fail to realize the geographical relation between Africa and the United States because of our use of Mercator maps and of Eastern and Western Hemisphere maps. That part of Africa which is within a hemisphere centered at Eastport, Maine, is equal to the entire continent of South America in both area and population. From Washington, D. C., the farthest corner of Egypt, on the Red Sea, is nearer than Cape Horn.

These geographical relationships of Africa with Asia and the Americas have become evident as we have studied a globe with the aid of a transparent plastic hemisphere on which continental outlines were traced. By moving the transparent hemisphere anywhere over the globe one may compare any portion of the earth with any other, and may study great circle routes and distances, without any of the distortions of scale and area which attend the use of flat maps. Unfortunately such devices cannot become available for general use until the materials can be directed to peacetime services. But we all need to learn that one of the most important aids to global thinking is the globe itself, with simple means of measuring and comparing one area with another.

Abraham Lincoln said ". . . we cannot escape



WORLD RELATIONSHIPS OF THE UNITED STATES

That part of Africa which is within a hemisphere centered at Eastport, Maine, is equal to the entire continent of South America in both area and population. The line of heavy dots encircling the hemisphere inset is duplicated on the world map (on the Miller cylindrical projection). The map illustrates, in addition, other hemispheres centered at points in the United

States. To the north of the dashed line, all lands (solid black) and seas are within a radius of about 6,220 miles of *every* part of the United States, that is, measured across the country, as from Maine across California to a point southwest of the Hawaiian Islands. All lands and seas to the north of the southern dotted line are within hemispheres centered within some part of the United States; note that this includes not only all of South America but also all of Europe, the larger part of Asia, and well over half of Africa.

history." If we cannot escape history, neither can we escape geography—the geography of rapidly changing world relationships, cultural and economic, between peoples of every part of the globe.

The geographical relationships which may scarcely be perceived except on a globe have come to have real significance for the first time in history. Actual distances between places on

the earth are important because in the invisible ocean of air above us, far deeper than the deepest sea, overlying land and sea alike, airplanes are flying. Heretofore the distances that really counted were measured in time of surface travel and in the cost of passenger travel or freight rates. Today, because of the airplane, direct global relationships tend to determine both time and cost, except for bulk freight.

The adjustments which we must make with reference to other continents are perhaps analogous, in a sense, to the change of viewpoint required when modern astronomy was born, four centuries ago. The discoveries of Copernicus, Kepler, and Galileo, making the earth but one of a family of planets revolving about the sun, were humiliating and were passionately resisted when men believed the universe to be geocentric. None could then imagine the great series of subsequent astronomic discoveries pertaining to the vast universe, in which the physics of stars and atoms are intimately related. Similarly today, men of all races and nationalities tend to resist the implications of world interrelationships, fearing that their fixed positions will dissolve before their eyes and that they may have to move in orbits which are related to, and influenced by, those of other peoples.

We should, however, focus on facts not fears. One of those facts is that men employ the cheapest and fastest means of travel, communication, and the transport of goods at their disposal. They will in Africa, and we do with reference to Africa. Men want their expenditure of effort or of money to count, without much thought of social or political implications. In the horse-and-buggy days men began using automobiles without insisting on knowing the possible effects on road building, steel and rubber industries, petroleum consumption, or international travel. And now that men have made their adjustments and regard automobiles as normal, some of the viewpoints and attitudes of a half century ago seem a bit antiquated. Likewise, when men have learned to employ the great facilities now at their disposal they can only regard their expanded geographical and cultural relationships as normal. With the emphasis upon such facts rather than fears, the instrumentalities that are being so effectively and so tragically used for brutalitarian ends can more readily be dedicated to humanitarian objectives and world order.

American Republics

ANNIVERSARY OF MEXICAN INDEPENDENCE

[Released to the press September 16]

The President has sent the following message to His Excellency Gen. Manuel Avila Camacho, President of the United Mexican States, on the occasion of the anniversary of Mexican independence:

SEPTEMBER 16, 1943.

It is with particular pleasure that I extend to Your Excellency and to the Mexican people my heartiest congratulations on this anniversary of Mexican independence which finds Mexico and the United States firmly allied in a common and triumphant struggle to preserve the heritage of liberty and democracy left us by those whose deeds we celebrate on our national holidays.

On this day you and your compatriots may contemplate with satisfaction the contributions you are making to the cause of the United Nations. Mexicans have laid down their lives for that cause. Mexicans are fighting and working for it. The products of Mexico in an ever increasing stream are swelling the arsenal in which the victory of that cause is being forged.

I am happy to send to Your Excellency at this time my most sincere good wishes for the continued welfare of the United Mexican States as well as my most cordial personal greetings. I cherish the recollection of our meeting last April and greatly value your friendship.

FRANKLIN D ROOSEVELT

The following message was sent by the Secretary of State to His Excellency Ezequiel Padilla, Secretary of Foreign Relations of Mexico:

SEPTEMBER 16, 1943.

On this anniversary of the Independence of your great nation, I extend cordial greetings to Your Excellency and sincere good wishes for the continued welfare of the people of Mexico and for your personal well-being. I also take this occasion to send you my warmest personal regards and to renew the assurances of my highest consideration.

CORDELL HULL

ANNIVERSARY OF CHILEAN INDEPENDENCE

[Released to the press September 18]

The President sent the following message to His Excellency Juan Antonio Rios, President of the Republic of Chile, on the occasion of the anniversary of Chilean independence:

SEPTEMBER 18, 1943.

On this the one hundred and thirty-third anniversary of Chilean independence it gives me pleasure to convey to you and the people of your great country my own personal felicitations. The instinctive democracy and love of liberty which have characterized the Chilean people through the generations are well known and appreciated in this country and their alignment on the side of the forces combatting aggression in the present heroic struggle for the maintenance of liberty and human rights and their devotion to the spirit of continental solidarity are in accord with the traditions of your people. We in the United States are particularly honored to have with us on this historic day, your distinguished Foreign Minister, Dr. Joaquin Fernandez Fernandez.

My warmest congratulations on this memorable day.

Cordial best wishes.

FRANKLIN D ROOSEVELT

Cultural Relations

THE NON-THEATRICAL MOTION-PICTURE PROGRAM ABROAD

The development by the Department of State of a non-theatrical motion-picture program in foreign countries is not well known to the general public, whose knowledge of films is confined chiefly to those products of Hollywood which are made for purposes of entertainment. In order to point out the objectives of the non-theatrical film program and its potentialities for increased international understanding and knowledge, it is necessary to show how the program is being carried out.

In 1938 the United States was at peace. The efforts of its leaders and people were being exerted to maintain peace. The Division of Cultural Relations was established in the De-

partment of State for the purpose of assisting in the international exchange of cultural information and promoting international intellectual cooperation to form a sound basis of understanding for peaceful international relations. The Division of Cultural Relations made a study to determine the quantity and types of requests received from abroad for motion pictures about the United States and, as a result of the need indicated by the study, began distributing on a small scale Government-made and Government-approved information films. Today, the Department has an active motion-picture section. Officers of the Department who have had years of experience in the Department

and abroad review all motion pictures intended for distribution, through official Government channels, outside the United States. Through the offices of the Foreign Service the Department distributes appropriate films to fill specific needs in all parts of the world. This includes all the other American republics and such distant places as Australia, Iceland, China, Morocco, Greenland, New Zealand, Iran, Portugal, Spain, Iraq, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Saudi Arabia, Algeria, India, Egypt, and Ceylon.

Other agencies of the Government are playing an important part in the film program. After the President declared a national emergency in 1939, the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs was set up, with a motion-picture division provided with funds to institute an accelerated film program for informing the people of the other American republics about the United States, its people, and its military activities. The importance of the part played by that office can be measured by the 9,238 persons reported attending exhibitions of films in February 1942, under the supervision of the Foreign Service establishments compared to a total of 1,594,789 reported in July 1943. The majority of the total was accounted for in the other American republics. With the entry of the United States into the war against the Axis, the Motion Picture Bureau of the Office of War Information's Overseas Branch began preparing foreign-language informational films and supplying additional projection equipment for film showings in countries outside the Western Hemisphere. This program, now well under way, is being extended to include all countries with which diplomatic and consular relations are maintained.

The motion picture is a recognized instrument of communication capable of presenting clearly to millions, literate or not, the best-selling novel of the year, the latest victory on the battle fronts, or, by means of animation, it can describe in detail the internal operation of an engine. Informative motion pictures are so effective that the Axis countries have given

them an important place in their programs of psychological warfare. A recent report on the Nazis' use of motion pictures pointed out that since the beginning of the National Socialist regime the Nazi leaders have recognized the power of the motion picture as a political instrument, and, by a large-scale organizational effort, have coordinated the work of the German film industry with the objectives of national policy by selection and training of special personnel; by the control of film production through banking credits, censorship, and systematic propaganda directives; and by an energetic distribution program at home and abroad. The chief of the film division of the Nazi Ministry of Propaganda believes that motion pictures have the most intensive effect upon the largest audience and that films can undermine undesirable attitudes just as they can form desirable opinions. The Japanese, too, use the motion picture as a means of showing Japanese "cultural" achievements and the advantages which they believe accrue from living in the so-called "Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere"; nor did Fascist Italy neglect the use of films in support of political ideologies.

The totalitarian nations make use of motion pictures for the purpose of propagating their destructive political and military ideologies. Other countries have put films to a constructive use as a means of issuing reliable information to their own peoples and to the world for the purpose of contributing to greater international understanding and fellowship. Early in the 1920's Great Britain developed an educational film program which grew in quality and effectiveness as film-making techniques improved. Great Britain, Canada, Australia, France, Sweden, Brazil, Switzerland, and others have used, and still use, motion pictures to portray various aspects of their national life to other peoples of the world.

With war foremost in the events of the world, many of the non-theatrical films are war films, depicting progress on the battle fronts, and the size and strength of the United States' war effort in troop training and in industry and

agriculture. Other films are on non-war subjects and show daily life and technical and scientific progress in the United States. The latter type of film, which will continue to be of value when the war ends, is meant to interpret this nation to the other nations with which it must work and live. Effective factual films provide stimulation of interest in and create a desire for further knowledge of, a particular subject or region. Most important, however, is the rapid and convincing manner in which these films spread a knowledge of people and ideals, of technological and scientific advances. Such cultural exchange may help to form the solid bases for international understanding and friendship.

Language constitutes the greatest handicap to the program. For example, China presents a problem in scoring because no one language serves the entire country. Instead, there are a series of dialects, each hardly intelligible when spoken to persons in other parts of the republic, though always understandable when written in the universal Chinese characters. Scoring a film in 20 or 30 languages is costly if only few prints of each language version are needed. The Mandarin dialect, therefore, is used in scoring films for China since it reaches the largest percentage of the population. In Africa there are 34 native languages in addition to English, French, Arabic, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian, which would have to be used to make the pictures perfectly understood by the entire population. India presents a similar problem with approximately 22 distinct languages, plus their many variations, in addition to English. Fortunately, certain major languages are widely spoken and understood, making it possible to reach a large majority of the people by using only those languages.

There are many actual physical difficulties, some made more acute by war conditions. Transportation is one of the latter. Gasoline shortages have been an everpresent hindrance to the United States officials and their civilian helpers conducting the showings. In Brazil, projectors, screens, and films are being transported in charcoal-burning trucks. Portable

generators must also be carried to the many places where there is no electricity. Electric voltage and cycles vary all over the world, and projection equipment must be adapted to it. It varies from city to city and even within many cities. In one Bolivian village in the foothills of the Andes half of the town had to be blacked-out to obtain sufficient current to operate the projector.

Handicaps, however, are not insurmountable when nationals of the foreign countries cooperate so energetically in carrying out the non-theatrical motion-picture program. The Central do Brazil Railway in Brazil has supplied a special railway car to carry the 16-millimeter projection units along its right-of-way, notifying the mayor or appropriate officials of towns where stops are to be made. A Chilean railroad offers free trips to the projectionists. In Colombia the National Railways outfitted a railroad car for 16-millimeter and 35-millimeter projection trips. In Monterrey, Mexico, business interests are lending to the American Consulate, for its showings, a generator, a turntable to play recordings, and a truck. In Central America one commercial company lends its projectors, houses the projectionist who visits its camps and towns and hospitals, and even provides its airplane and pilot for quick trips to small, remote villages. More than once the United States Army has lent a helping hand in distant places, using a "jeep" where other means of passage was impossible. Now and then someone even lends a mule for trips into the interior.

Generally, the films are shown to selected audiences—audiences appropriate for the pictures shown. The audience may consist of one person—the president of the country in which the films are to be exhibited; a few doctors interested in a film portraying some new technique in surgery developed by the profession in the United States; a roomful of professors and teachers, who study a number of pedagogical films and discuss the place of this aid to visual education in the modern curriculum; or school children in their classes, who, as future leaders and citizens, study films on hygiene, history, and science, as well as regional aspects of the United

States, its people and government, thereby assuring more amicable international relations among future generations. Also there may be throngs of thousands gathered in plazas, far from the actual battle, watching Allied bombers roar across the English Channel to attack objectives in occupied Europe.

In the other American republics, for example, the types of audiences are numerous. In one country, the projector used by the American Embassy in the capital city during the day for educational showings in schools was loaded onto a truck and carried outside the city to the coffee plantations for showings in the early evening to the coffee pickers, many of whom had never seen a motion picture. The films were received rousing by the laborers. At the other extreme are the seminaries and schools of the churches, sometimes located in isolated spots, whose students are thirsting for knowledge of the outside world. According to one field report, two priests from a seminary appeared at the American Embassy in a leading South American capital one afternoon to request a showing at the school. They wistfully inquired whether a three-hour exhibition would be asking too much, since the students were permitted to see films only once a year, and if, in addition to a number of educational films, the Embassy could also furnish films on the war, showing planes, tanks, and battleships. The Embassy was glad to accede to both requests.

Enthusiastic audiences have become a routine but never uninteresting nor unimportant story to the officials of the Department of State in charge of the non-theatrical film program. In the diplomatic despatches which flow steadily into the Department they read of film showings being held in remote interior towns where the projector is set up in the little plazas. Photographs of the audiences gathered there show the eagerness with which the people attend the exhibitions. One despatch mentioned that "three benches at the rear broke under the weight of the persons standing on them before the show was over." This was because more than 500 eager townspeople had jammed into the little hall where the showing was scheduled.

In the small towns of Baruta and El Hatillo, Venezuela, 40 percent of the population attended single film showings in the plaza. In Naranjo, Costa Rica, the American Embassy's representatives were using the Teatro Carballo, which accommodates 300 persons, but 488 of the townspeople managed to cram their way inside an hour before the performance. The Embassy's report to the Department said: "All the aisles and galleries were crowded and the pressure was so great at the rear that we could hardly work around the machine. It got very hot but nobody went home. One person tried to stick his head outside one of the theater doors after the first picture and some 20 persons jammed through the door before it could be closed and barred again. We needed the services of three or four policemen, not to protect us against Nazi sympathizers, but to keep the crowds out of the theater."

At Galeana, Mexico, a small, inaccessible town, the yearly fair was in progress, and the motion pictures in the plaza were to supply the outstanding entertainment. The report of the American Consul at Monterrey said, in part: "Many of the people walked 20 kilometers [over 12 miles] or more to see the showings, and many of these people had never seen a motion picture before. . . . The first night there were 2,000 to see the pictures, the second night about 3,000, and on Sunday, the third night, there were over 5,000. Some of the comments made by the Mexican officials follow: 'Words cannot convince these country people that there is a war going on, but these pictures certainly do.' 'These pictures give our people more education in one night than we could do in a year.' 'Our people hear about American production but never realize what it is all about; now they know what a plane is and what a tank looks like.' 'Such pictures make us feel closer and more friendly to you and help us to know your country better.'"

Report after report makes it evident to the Department that the portable projector and the 16-millimeter film are bringing the story of the United States to people wanting information—both to those eager to participate in a war which

many times is quite remote from small settlements in the interior of some country, and to the people of non-belligerent countries who realize the great influence the war and its outcome will have on their own lives.

The motion-picture program is serving a present need in informing interested and friendly nations of the war effort of the United States and a long-range need in identifying the true spirit of the people of the United States through motion pictures showing their daily lives, their work, their institutions, and their land.

DISTINGUISHED VISITORS FROM OTHER AMERICAN REPUBLICS

[Released to the press September 14]

Señor Domingo Melfi, editor of *La Nación*, a leading newspaper of Santiago, Chile, has arrived in Washington for a coast-to-coast visit as a guest of the Department of State. Señor Melfi, who is accompanied by his wife, is interested in observing the contribution of the United States toward victory for the United Nations and in viewing cultural centers in this country, especially art galleries, universities, and libraries.

Treaty Information

MILITARY AND NAVAL MISSIONS

Agreement With Ecuador for Detail of United States Army Officer as Technical Director of the Eloy Alfaro Military College of Ecuador

[Released to the press September 13]

In conformity with the request of the Government of Ecuador, there was signed on September 13, 1943 by the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, and Señor Capitán Colón Eloy Alfaro, Ambassador of Ecuador in Wash-

ington, an agreement providing for the detail of an officer of the United States Army to serve as Technical Director of the Eloy Alfaro Military College of Ecuador.

The agreement will continue in force for four years from the date of signature but may be extended beyond that period at the request of the Government of Ecuador.

The agreement contains provisions similar in general to provisions contained in agreements between the United States and certain other American republics providing for the detail of officers of the United States Army or Navy to advise the armed forces of those countries.

POSTAL

Postal Union of the Americas and Spain

Brazil; Guatemala

With a note dated September 2, 1943 the Ambassador of Panama at Washington transmitted to the Secretary of State certified copies of the instruments of deposit on May 30, 1942 and October 5, 1938, respectively, of the ratifications by the Governments of Brazil and Guatemala of the acts of the Fourth Congress of the Postal Union of the Americas and Spain, signed at Panamá on December 22, 1936.

According to information in the records of the Department of State the status of the acts of the Fourth Congress of the Postal Union of the Americas and Spain signed at Panamá on December 22, 1936 is as follows:

Convention of the Postal Union of the Americas and Spain

Ratifications have been deposited by the United States of America, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Mexico, Panama, Spain, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Argentina, Honduras, and Peru have approved or ratified the convention, but their respective ratifications have not yet been deposited.

*Provisions Relating to the Transportation of
Correspondence by Air*

Ratifications have been deposited by Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Ecuador, El Salvador, Haiti, Mexico, Panama, Spain, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Argentina, Honduras, and Peru have approved or ratified the provisions, but their respective ratifications have not yet been deposited.

Agreement Relating to Parcel Post

Ratifications have been deposited by the United States of America, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, Spain, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Argentina, Honduras, and Peru have approved or ratified the agreement, but their respective ratifications have not yet been deposited.

Agreement Relating to Money Orders

Ratifications have been deposited by the United States of America, Bolivia, Brazil, El Salvador, Mexico, Panama, Spain, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Argentina, Honduras, and Peru have approved or ratified the agreement, but their respective ratifications have not yet been deposited.

Publications

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

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Military Service: Agreement Between the United States of America and El Salvador—Effectuated by exchanges of notes signed at Washington April 3 and May 14 and 31, 1943; effective May 15, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 325. Publication 1986. 10 pp. 5¢.

Diplomatic List, September 1943. Publication 1987. ii, 114 pp. Subscription, \$1 a year; single copy 10¢.

Our Foreign Policy in the Framework of Our National Interests: Radio Address by Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, September 12, 1943. Publication 1990. 13 pp. 5¢.

OTHER AGENCIES

Annual Report of the American Historical Association for the Year 1941 (in three volumes). Vol. I. H. Doc. 512 (part 1), 77th Cong. xxvi, 343 pp.

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